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AUTHOR Warner, Allen R.
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ABSTRACT

Student teaching is examined in relation to Maslow's theory of human motivation that proposes an inherent human tendency toward self-actualization. It is pointed out that the majority of student teachers operate in fear as they enter their final phase of teacher training, and according to Maslow, they are operating at the safety level, concerned with their own survival at a time when they are asked to give to others. At least one study suggests student teaching does not have to be this way. A team of researchers identified six developmental stages during the student teaching experience that parallel the intermediate sequence of Maslow's theory (safety, love and belongingness, and esteem): (1) concerns with placements, school rules, identifying and ascertaining the expectations of supervisory personnel; (2) concerns about the student teachers' perceptions of their adequacy in the teaching role; (3) desires to determine the causes of deviant behavior on the parts of their students; (4) desires for evaluation and feedback from supervisors, parents, principals, and other teachers; (5) concerns for what their pupils are learning as opposed to what they are being taught; and finally (6) concerns for their pupils and the achievement of new understandings of themselves through relationships with their pupils. Results from research suggest that most student teachers do not advance beyond the fourth developmental stage--concerns for feedback and evaluation. It is suggested that (1) microteaching and simulation prior to student teaching have potential toward gratifying a number of the safety related concerns of the student teacher; (2) that student teachers should have the opportunity to establish close personal relationships with at least one teacher educator to promote feelings of belonging; and (3) that prior experience with pupils would promote feelings of comfort when student teaching. A three-phase program of exploration, skill acquisition, and skill-testing and revision is also suggested to help gratify student teachers' needs. (MM)

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MASLOW AND FIELD EXPERIENCES

IN

COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

Presented as

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at

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of the

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by

Allen R. Warner
Director of Field Experiences
University of Houston
Houston, Texas

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THE NEED FOR A CONCEPTUAL BASE

> Even a perfunctory review of the literature on student teaching in the last 75 years leads quickly to the conclusion that there is no comprehensive theoretical rationale for the contributions of student teaching and related direct experiences to the development of a professional teacher (Andrews, 1964, p. 30).

Because of the lack of a theoretical base from which to operate, research in student teaching has been criticized as being "highly randomized," leading one writer to conclude: ". . . what we have actually said is something like this: we do not know what we want to happen, but surely it will happen if we give the teacher education student enough exposure" (LaGrone, 1965, p. 97).

Conant (1964, p. 142) considered professional laboratory experiences the "one indisputably essential element in professional education." But as Silberman has point out, this view is primarily based on the opinions of graduates of teacher education programs rather than being rooted in a systematic justification. "To the extent to which they value any aspect of their professional education, teachers generally cite practice teaching as the most valuable--sometimes the only valuable--part" (Silberman, 1970, p. 451).

Within the past few years, professional education has become a more scientific undertaking. One thrust has been directed toward breaking the teaching act down into more specific, definable behaviors. Another thrust has been in the direction of codifying and quantifying those behaviors, and assessing their effects on student learning.

As professional education becomes more scientific in its approach, controversy multiplies between "behaviorists" and "humanists." In one corner of the ring are those who see the proper goal of teacher education programs as the production of a teacher who has mastered a variety of teaching skills. The trainee is expected to display a certain minimal degree of competence in his/her behavior as measured against predetermined objectives. Cooper and Weber define competency-based teacher education as follows:

> A competency-based (or performance-based) teacher education program is a program in which the competencies to be acquired by the student and the criteria to be applied in assessing the competency of the student are made explicit and the student is held accountable for meeting those criteria (Cooper and Weber, quoted in Elfenbein, 1972, p. 4).

The reader should note at this point that this definition of competency-based teacher education involves only the explicit nature of the objectives of the program, and the accountability of the student for meeting those objectives. Other concepts, such as individual progression and mastery learning, are not given in this definition but are often introduced into discussions concerning competency-based teacher education.

Teacher educators who value teachers possessing a "self-as-instrument" self concept, a view of the teacher as helper, as the ultimate goal of professional education, tend to be in the opposing corner. Arthur Combs may be considered representative of this group. He has argued that, "The production of an effective teacher is a highly personal matter," and "Effective teacher education must concentrate its efforts on meanings rather than behavior" (1972, pp. 286-287). Behavior is only a symptom: subjective, idiosyncratic meanings are the causal agents.

Combs has criticized the competency approach for a number of reasons, questioning whether methods of experts can be taught to beginners; whether long lists of competencies cannot be discouraging to the neophyte and the experienced teacher alike, because one never really "arrives." There are always more competencies to be mastered (1965, pp. 4-5).

For the self-as-instrument group, becoming a teacher is part of an overall process of "becoming" as a person, part of the development of a total personality. And that process of becoming must "start from security and acceptance" (Combs, 1972, p. 287).

Such arguments, however, tend to obscure a deeper difference between these two approaches to the training of teachers. That difference is one of epistemology, of basic assumptions concerning that which is worth knowing. Epistemological assumptions are basic to any view of science, for they outline the rubrics of empirical inquiry.

Competency-based programs, by Cooper and Weber's definition, are organized on the principle of criterion-referenced instruction. This has been outlined earlier, but a further distinction must be made. In criterion-referenced instruction, the basic operational problem is the definition of desirable outcomes of units of instruction, and the statement of those outcomes in behavioral terms. Outcomes stated in this way are known as behavioral objectives, and the basic epistemological assumption of behavioral objectives is that outward behavior is that which is worth knowing, worth studying and measuring.

This assumption is in direct opposition to the position taken by Combs, alluded to earlier, that those entities worth knowing are the subjective, idiosyncratic meanings which cause behavior. This is the phenomenological point of view--that behavior should be considered from within a subject's frame of reference rather than from without.

THE NEED FOR A MORE COMPREHENSIVE PERSPECTIVE

Each of these approaches posits a desirable goal of programs of teacher education and delineates, to a degree, the types and structure of field experiences necessary to obtain that particular end goal. If, for instance, one's ideal picture of a beginning teacher emphasizes primarily measurable, observable basic skills, probably the most efficient method of achieving that end would be to: (1) modularize skill learning packages, giving the trainee the opportunity to develop specific competencies in simulated environments, and (2) to expect the trainee to exhibit those skills gained in later, direct classroom performance.

If, on the other hand, one's ideal beginning teacher is one with a strong sense of purpose, a positive view of self; highly attuned to the needs of individual students; responsive to, and capable of functioning in, an enviornment that is interpersonal and interactive; if this is the case, then the principle of "appropriate practice" would seem to suggest much more direct experience and less indirect, simulated experience.

In the first case, extreme emphasis on skill development alone ignores other elements of personal development. In the second, skill development is sacrificed because of the lack of control by the teacher trainer over the dynamics of direct classroom experience.

Truth, as is customary, lies somewhere between the extreme poles. The real goal of all teacher educators is a beginning teacher who enjoys working with pupils, who finds great satisfaction helping them learn, and who possesses the requisite skills to accomplish this end. This description is virtually identical with what Abraham Maslow has described as a self-actualized individual.

Maslow has proposed a theory of human motivation that is basically teleological, proposing an inherent human tendency toward self-actualization. Maslow ranks what he proposes to be inherent human needs, in order of decreasing strength:

1. Physiological needs
2. Safety
3. Love and affection
4. Self-esteem and prestige (approval of others)
5. Self-actualization

The point of the hierarchy is that the stronger, basic needs must be satisfied before the weaker, higher needs become important to us. A further point with regards to the hierarchy is that the needs in the hierarchy need not be totally satisfied in order for the individual to become aware of, and concerned about beginning to satisfy, the next higher and weaker need. The degree to which each need must be satisfied before movement to the next higher need occurs is an individual process. For some individuals safety or security is a stronger need than for others.

It is at level four (self-esteem and independence) where there exists a possibility for integrating, at least theoretically, the two opposing points of view ("competency" vs. "becoming") with regards to the goals, and therefore the structure, of clinical experiences. Maslow has from time to time referred to "competence" as an important ingredient in obtaining and maintaining a sense of self-esteem and independence. One must view himself as a competent human being in order to gain self-esteem.

STUDENT TEACHING

At what level of concern are teacher-trainees as they complete their training? David Aspy has suggested that there is a considerable discrepancy between what teacher educators expect of teacher trainees in clinical experience, and what teacher trainees are in a position to give. Reviewing a number of studies concerning anxieties expressed during teacher training and during initial years of teaching, Aspy concluded:

> . . . the majority of our student teachers are operating in fear as they enter their final phase of teacher training. According to Maslow, they would be operating at the safety level, which means they are concerned with their own survival at a time when we are asking them to give to others (Aspy, 1969, p. 304).

Do other data support this view? Dussault (1970) reviewed studies from 1931 to 1968 which utilized professional laboratory experiences (almost exclusively student teaching) as the independent variable and attitude changes on the part of teacher trainees as the dependent variable. He found a number of positive changes:

-- positive changes in self-concept

-- greater acceptance of others

-- greater reality-orientation

-- less self-depreciation

-- improvement in teaching skills

-- improved ability to work with children

-- better understanding of children

-- greater self-autonomy and decision-making

-- greater correlation between perceptions of ideal and actual own teaching role

-- more positive perceptions of ideal and actual teachers

-- decrease in professional anxieties

Assuming that the desired outcome is a teacher who enjoys working with students, who is open to new ideas and approaches, who begins to develop his own personal idiosyncratic teaching style, and so on, the "bad news" effects of student teaching are:

-- less openness to experience

-- adoption of accepted practices

-- adoption of cooperating teacher's methods of teaching

-- adoption of cooperating teacher's methods of classroom housekeeping

-- less logical consistency of ideas about education

-- more negative perception of child behavior

-- more custodial pupil-control ideology

Sorenson and Halpert (1969) found that 70 percent of the student teachers whom they studied experienced "considerable psychological discomfort" at the beginning of the student teaching

experience, and 20 percent carried that discomfort with them to the end of the assignment. The researchers identified five stress factors. Two of these dealt with the nature of discomfort: physical discomfort and irritability, and feelings of personal inadequacy and uncertainty about the teaching role. Two more factors were identified as sources of discomfort: disagreements between the student teacher and the supervising teacher concerning teaching practices, and perceived differences in personality between student teacher and supervising teacher.

The fifth factor which Sorenson and Halpert identified concerned the relationships between the student teacher and pupils. The researchers were unsure whether to assign this variable to either a source of discomfort, or a nature (or type) of discomfort. They refer to this scale as "dislike of students."

STUDENT TEACHING AND SAFETY-LEVEL BEHAVIOR

Do the results of research given above support Aspy's charge that teacher trainees are operating at a safety level of behavior during the final phase of their training?

Answering this question requires, first of all, operationalizing the term "safety" in this specific context. What constitutes safety here? What is the goal of the organism (in this case, the student teacher)?

Student teaching is usually a terminal experience in a teacher education program. The student teacher is often in the final semester of his undergraduate college career. What is his most immediate goal? To graduate. To complete the program. In order to

complete his college career, he must complete student teaching. The diploma constitutes the consummation of sixteen years of schooling. It represents a considerable amount of effort and the allocation of numerous resources. Reaching that goal constitutes immediate perceived safety.

How does one succeed in student teaching? Whose expectations must be met? Daily, the supervising teacher. Occasionally, the university supervisor. It is not surprising then that the student teacher should model a considerable amount of his classroom teaching behavior after that of the supervising teacher--that the supervising teacher becomes a "significant other" to the point where disagreements between the student teacher and supervising teacher result in, as Sorenson and Halpert phrase it, "considerable psychological discomfort."

What of the pupils in the student teacher's charge? The supervising teacher, the university supervisor, and the entire educational staff back at the university want the student teacher to like the children he is teaching, to help those children learn, to show respect for their abilities.

But the student teacher sees a necessity of presenting himself to his evaluators as poised, confident, in control of his classes. This type of image is, after all, vital to success. The students don't quite understand. With a new person in charge of the class, the rules change. The children test, probe, explore this new leader to determine the limits he will place on their behavior. And the novice teacher views this pupil behavior as a threat to reaching the goal that is so close after so many years, the diploma.

It is to be expected that, upon completing this stressful experience, the positive changes in attitude identified by Dussault would also follow. Having successfully completed the student teaching experience with all its strains, it is to be expected that the student teacher will feel better about himself. He has conquered. He will feel better about teachers in the field. He has, after all, adopted many of his supervising teacher's methods in order to succeed.

Almost everyone does succeed in student teaching. Johnson (1968) found that 86 per cent of responding institutions reported failing 1 per cent or less of their student teachers on the first assignment. But in succeeding, some less than desirable attitudes have been fostered. One intention (or objective) was for the student teacher to use the skills gained in earlier training, to test them, to use them in developing his own idiosyncratic teaching style. But instead, he simply adopted many of the methods of his supervising teacher--who had adopted many of those of her supervising teacher. The status quo lives.

Another objective was to open the student teacher's mind to experience. The stresses of the situation have instead made him less open.

The student teacher was supposed to develop a fairly rational philosophy concerning education and his own teaching. He was so busy meeting everyone's expectations, however, that he had little time to attempt to synthesize the theory he had been taught on campus with the practices he was expected to display in the classroom. He ended the experience with less logical consistency of this ideas about education than when he began.

The trainee was supposed to learn to like the age-group of children he was preparing to teach as a career. But with all the other stresses, all the other expectations he had to meet, the pupils really got in the way. They, after all, were not the ones to make the final evaluation. And much of the final evaluation rested on how well he controlled or guided them. The pupils' attempts to determine the "new rules" with the new leader were not perceived a natural phenomenon but rather a threat to success, to safety.

And finally, under the stresses of the situation, the trainee began to question whether teaching was <u>really</u> the type of career to which he would like to devote his life. But this was the last semester of the senior year! It was much too late to change. So he made it through, he did what was expected of him, he got the degree. Then <u>perhaps</u> he took a teaching job. And <u>perhaps</u> for just a year or two until he found something more exciting, more personally fulfilling.

The reader at this point may feel that the writer is painting an overly dismal picture of student teaching. But the previous discussion did not wander from the findings summarized by Bossault, those of Sorenson and Halpert, and an additional consistent research finding ---------that 50 percent of the people who enter teaching do not stay in teaching longer than ten years.

The question remains: Does student teaching have to be this way? At least one study suggests that it does not. Fuller, Pilgrim and Freeland (1967) reported the results of an experiement which involved providing counseling and close supervision to student teachers. The researchers identified six developmental stages during the student teaching experience.

In the first stage, trainees were concerned about the question, "Where do I stand?" This initial stage concerned placements, school rules, identifying and ascertaining the expectations of various supervisory personnel.

The second stage involved concerns about the student teachers' perceptions of their adequacy in the teaching role. Anxieties about subject-matter adequacy and class control were highly evident.

A desire to determine the causes of deviant behavior on the partsof students was evidenced in the third stage, while the fourth stage exhibited a desire for evaluation, for feedback, from supervisors, parents, principals, and other teachers.

In the fifth stage, trainees began to display a concern for what their pupils were learning as opposed to what they were being taught. Finally, student teachers reflected a full concern for their pupils and began to achieve new understandings of themselves through their relationships with pupils.

Two points need to be made with regards to this study. The first is that these developmental stages parallel rather nicely the sequence of Maslow's theory of motivation, or at least the intermediate stages (safety, love and belongingness, esteem). The first two stages obviously fit quite well into ego-centered safety concerns. Stages three through five exhibit a movement from safety to belongingness, from ego-centered concerns to concerns about others. And the final stage shows the beginnings of a synergic environment--one in which the needs of the individual (in this case, the teacher trainee) and the needs of those about him are both being satisfied by the mutual relationship.

The second point to be made concerning this study is that few schools of education exist that can afford such close supervision and counseling on a regular basis with their student teachers. The results of the research summarized by Dussault, and the study by Sorenson and Halpert, suggest that most student teachers do not advance beyond the fourth developmental stage: concerns for feedback, for evaluation.

SKILLS AND SAFETY

Microteaching and simulation, as supplements to direct classroom experience in teacher education, have a number of advantages toward helping the trainee increase his cognitive skills. And a more broad repertoire of teaching behaviors should result in the gratification of a number of broadly defined safety needs. It would be expected that, having a broad repertoire of teaching skills, the trainee should, in the student teaching experience, exhibit somewhat less anxiety about his abilities in the teaching role. And it might also be expected that the trainee would exhibit less modelling after the teaching behavior of the supervising teacher.

But this is conjecture. These questions have not, to the present writer's knowledge, been researched. Much of the research that has been accomplished on microteaching and simulation has dealt with matters such as whether or not the trainee actually acquires the skills presented, whether or not he considers simulation and microteaching as relevant to conditions he will face in the classroom.

At present, then, the best that can be said is that microteaching and simulation have considerable potential toward gratifying a number of safety-related concerns of the trainee in the instructional role.

If the general aim, however, is to assist the trainee in reaching a level of esteem in the instructional role, a level of general attitudinal orientation in which the trainee finds the teaching role personally rewarding, there is an intermediate need-stage yet to be addressed.

LOVE AND BELONGINGNESS

Aspy (1969) has noted the desirability of promoting feelings of belongingness among teacher trainees, suggesting that trainees should have the opportunity to establish close personal relationships with at least one teacher educator from the teacher training institution. Dussault's summary of goals of professional laboratory experiences includes "acceptance and appreciation of other people."

To what group should teacher educators encourage the trainee to feel that he "belongs?" He should begin to feel himself a member of the profession, certainly, by the completion of his training. Research on student teaching, reviewed earlier, suggests that trainees complete student teaching with more positive attitudes toward teachers in the field than was the case prior to student teaching. And yet, 50 per cent of the teaching force leaves teaching within ten years.

Of all the factors which may cause a teacher to leave the teaching profession, what lasting bonds of affection (or belongingness) encourage one to remain in teaching? Close relationships with teacher educators may be valuable adjuncts to training, but are at best transitory. Such relationships will probably terminate when the trainee leaves the institution. If modelling of teaching behavior is

any indication, trainees tend to develop a rather close relationship with supervising teachers. But this relationship is again, in the majority of cases, transitory.

It would seem, then, that the only lasting bonds of attachment are those between the trainee and the type of child he is preparing to teach. Of all the institutional dysfunctions identified earlier in this paper which might cause individuals to leave the teaching profession, a vital ingredient which would cause one to remain in teaching would be a positive view of the children with which he works. One may decide to become a teacher because of previous experience with admirable people in the teaching profession. One may successfully complete training because of close relationships with various supervisory personnel. But one will probably not stay in teaching very long simply out of admiration for other teachers with which one works. Social encounters with other teachers over coffee, over lunch, or after hours are simply not sufficient if one is not attracted to the day-by-day work of helping children learn.

In simpler terms, if one does not like the type of child he is preparing to teach, he may not take a teaching position in the first place. And if he does take a teaching position, he will probably not last long (by his own choice or that of others). This sort of general affection for the type of child one is preparing to teach (or, in behaviorist terms, an approach tendency), is not a quality that can be trained. Yet if it is as important to the holding power of the teaching profession as the previous discussion has suggested, the necessity of fostering such feelings should be recognized and implemented in preservice training.

Can student teaching prove to be a useful activity through which to foster positive perceptions of pupils on the part of trainees? Research evidence, reviewed previously, suggests that student teaching has not been particularly successful at achieving this goal in the past. Results have been at best, inconclusive; and at worst, negative. Using the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Invetory as a data-gathering device has produced evidence of approximately even distributions of studies which show positive changes in relationships with students, negative changes, or no significant change at all. A fairly consistent finding, according to Dussault (1970), is that student teachers tend to have a more negative view of pupil behavior at the end of student teaching than was the case at the outset of student teaching.

EARLY DIRECT EXPERIENCE

If belongingness needs of teacher trainees--defined in this context as the development of positive perceptions toward the type of pupil the trainee is preparing to teach--are to be addressed so that the trainee may have the opportunity of gratifying such needs, neither microteaching, simulation, nor student teaching would appear to be viable options.

Developing positive relationships with pupils necessitates physical encounter and interaction between the trainee and pupils: direct experience. Yet there is precious little evidence of the effects of direct experience aside from student teaching--a terminal activity in teacher education. Virtually no research has been done with regards to attitude changes of potential teachers resulting from early, direct contacts with pupils.

Speculation, then, becomes the order of the day.

What types of direct classroom experience are available? There are two generic types of direct classroom experience: observation and participation. The trainee can watch, or he can do something. The trainee has, however, been observing teachers at work since the age of five or six. Additional unstructured observation, by itself, can probably add little to helping the trainee answer questions concerning his feelings about himself in the teaching role. Nor can observation alone allow the trainee to interact with pupils, to decide for himself whether working with pupils is a world of work to which he would like to commit his time and energies, or to develop positive relationships with pupils.

If, on the other hand, the reader will consider direct, participative experience as an early learning device--might not the same sorts of outcomes identified by Dussault as the results of student teaching be anticipated as results also of such early experience? That is, might teacher educators not expect such early, direct, participative experience to have positive effects of greater reality-orientation, positive changes in self-concept, less self-depreciation, and so on, on the part of trainees? And might not the negative effects, especially modelling behavior after the practices of personnel in the field, be better brought out early when such effects can be dealt with in later training, than left only as an effect of a terminal experience in the program? Broadening the cognitive teaching skills of the trainee after an initial reality-contact (through microteaching and simulation) should be more productive because the trainee would have a more concrete frame of reference concerning the teaching role.

One negative effect of direct experience identified by Dussault's review was that of more negative perceptions of pupil behavior on the part of the trainee. If the previous analysis in this paper has been correct--that this effect of student teaching has been, to a considerable extent, the result of trainees having to meet a plethora of supervisory expectations while working with entire classes--might not the opportunity to work with individual pupils, or small groups of pupils, with much less expected of the trainee in terms of skill learning or display, increase the opportunity for trainees to develop positive relationships with pupils? Gratification of belongingness needs is then also potentially addressed.

A further advantage of early, direct, extensive, participative clinical experience could be posited. If the trainee is viewed in a Maslovian sense--as a human being with a measure of free will who must be provided an optimum degree of freedom of choice--then such early reality-contact, if it is an initial experience in the teacher preparation program, can provide a solid basis for the trainee to decide whether or not teaching is a career to which he wishes to commit his time and energies. In providing an opportunity for the trainee to explore the instructional role in a low-threat environment, an opportunity is also set forth for the trainee to explore the less apparent complexities of the teaching role--hall duty, lunchroom duty, faculty meetings, instructional planning, and so forth. The trainee then has a considerable amount of information on which to base very personal questions of commitment, and sufficiently early in the program so that he can, if he so desires, shift to another area of professional training--another world of work more consonant with his own needs and desires--with little penalty.

PHASES OF CLINICAL EXPERIENCE

With these considerations in mind, field experience might most profitably be conceptualized in terms of successive phases--each phase with differing objectives, and experiences provided to accomplish those objectives. For the purposes of this analysis, three phases will be suggested: an exploratory phase; a skill-acquisition phase; and a skill-testing and revision phase.

Exploratory Phase

In the exploratory phase, the primary objective is to provide the trainee who has made an initial decision to become a teacher, the best, most realistic information possible on which to base his decision as to whether or not to continue in teacher training. At the end of this initial phase, the trainee would be held accountable for making an initial commitment to continue training. Or, conversely, to select himself out of the program at a sufficiently early stage so that he can seek a world of work more appropriate to his own needs.

If this exploratory phase also contains certain conditions, those trainees who decide to continue their training can potentially gain more than decision-making information: they can gain a measure of readiness for subsequent training as well. If, for instance, the exploratory phase contains the basic generic elements of student teaching--direct, participative experience--then teacher educators might also expect that most of the effects of student teaching (as outlined by Dussault earlier) would also be the result of this early direct experience. Those trainees who decide to continue training

should evidence, as a group: an enhanced self-concept; better understanding of children; greater reality-orientation, and so on. These positive effects can only enhance later training.

If the previous analysis presented in this paper has been correct--that negative effects such as less openness to experience, more negative perceptions of pupil behavior, as less openness to experience, more negative perceptions of pupil behavior, as residual effects of student teaching are primarily caused by the trainee having to respond to too many expectations at once--then these effects of student teaching need <u>not</u> be effects of this exploratory stage. If the trainee is given limited instructional tasks to accomplish which virtually <u>guarantee</u> success--such as one-to-one tutoring, perhaps later at the judgment of the supervisor leading small group discussions, and perhaps <u>under close supervision</u> leading an entire class in a learning activity--the effect that might be anticipated is that the trainee will be <u>more</u> open to experience and <u>less</u> negative concerning pupil behavior.

The point, then, is that by assuring the <u>safety</u> of the trainee, an opportunity is being provided for the trainee to address questions of <u>belonging</u> as well. In being given a low-threat environment in which to explore the instructional role, the trainee at the same time is being given the opportunity to develop positive relationships with pupils. The complexities of the teaching role with regards to leading whole classes have been lessened, but with trainee-pupil interaction still possible.

In order for the trainee to acquire the optimum amount of information on which to base decisions concerning further commitment to the teaching profession, this exploratory stage should not be limited only to working with students. Non-instructional activities which consume so much of the teacher's time in actual practice (typing, paper grading, planning, hall duty, and so on) are also integral elements of the teaching role. To be honest with the trainee demands that the trainee be exposed to such activities as part of this exploratory stage. The primary purpose of this exploratory phase is to allow the trainee the opportunity to develop positive relationships with pupils representative of the age group he is preparing to teach. Because this phase is early in the program, the trainee also has the opportunity not to develop positive relationships with pupils, and to select himself out.

Most certainly, these purposes or objectives should be made explicit, clearly spelled out, to the trainee at the beginning of the exploratory phase. The trainee should not have to expend his energies attempting to determine what is expected of him in this phase, because that uncertainty itself can be the cause of considerable anxiety and coping behavior.

The denouement of the exploratory phase should come at the end. At this point, trainees should be confronted with a conscious rational decision based on the opportunities provided: whether or not to continue preparing to become teachers. This initial commitment is a statement of intention, not a contract. The trainee always retains the

option of divorcing himself from the program at a later date. And the trainee's intention certainly need not be in the form of a written document. Most important, the trainee must be addressed with the proper questions, clearly and explicitly, perhaps phrased as follows:

> Over the past few weeks you have been allowed the opportunity to explore the teaching role. You were given this opportunity because you had expressed an interest in teaching as a career. Hopefully, you have found out through that experience that teaching is more than it may have appeared to you in your role as a student. Helping pupils learn is a vastly complicated undertaking, and teaching a class is by no means all there is to the role of teacher.
>
> The professional staff in the school of education at this institution has considerable experience in the field of education. They can help you become a better, more skilled teacher. But they can not make you <u>want</u> to teach, nor can they make you <u>like</u> the type of child you are preparing to teach. Both of these qualities are essential, and <u>you</u> are the only one who can answer these questions.
>
> If you decide to continue preparing to teach, the next phase will require that you acquire a variety of skills to help you function more effectively as a teacher. And in student teaching, the final phase, you will be expected to display some of those skills in your teaching behavior. These skills are not required for the purpose of "fitting" you into the mold of a good teacher, but rather to supply you with "tools" to help you become more effective as a teacher.
>
> If you have decided at this point that you do not wish to continue in teacher preparation, then this experience was also beneficial for you. You now have the opportunity to contact your advisor and revise your program so that you may prepare for an occupation more in line with your interests.

<u>Skill Acquisition Phase</u>

Having provided the trainee with opportunities to attend to the gratification of safety and belongingness needs <u>within the instructional context</u> during the exploratory phase, those trainees who decide to continue training should be ready to address the acquisition of skills related to the teaching role.

In this phase, techniques such as microteaching and simulation become extremely valuable. Both simulation and microteaching rely heavily on selectivity. The teaching act is broken down into constituent elements, and this simplification allows analysis. The complex stimuli inherent in the classroom environment are categorized, separated. The trainee is provided with a safe environment in which to attend to stimuli relevant to a particular category. He is given a relatively safe environment in which to practice decision-making skills (simulation), or specific teaching behaviors (microteaching). The result of such training is a broadening of the cognitive skills of the trainee. And the more skilled he is, the more confident he should tend to be during the student teaching phase. With this confidence should come less defensiveness under stress, and less tendency to "model" his teaching behavior after that of the supervising teacher (some modelling is probably unavoidable, if only because the supervising teacher is an important evaluator in the student teaching phase).

Skill-Testing and Revision Phase
(Student Teaching)

In the first phase, the trainee was given the opportunity to gratify safety and belongingness needs in the instructional context, and at the end of that phase was given the opportunity to make a rational decision concerning the desirability of the teaching role in terms of his own potential for growth.

In the second phase, the trainee was supplied with skills of teaching and decision-making. In effect, the purpose here was to gratify esteem needs through providing the trainee with a degree of technical expertise in the instructional role.

The final phase the present author has termed skill-testing and revision. In the past, this phase has variously been referred to as apprenticeship, practice teaching, student teaching. The functions which are suggested for this stage are:

1. Opportunities for the trainee to test the skills gained in the previous phases against the dynamics of full professional role assumption.

2. through testing and evaluation, opportunities for the trainee to explore various skill combinations, and on the basis of experience to revise them.

3. opportunities for the teacher preparing institution, through its supervisory personnel, to determine the final adequacy of the teaching candidate for purposes of certification.

PHASE OBJECTIVES

It may be useful for the reader to have the objectives of the three recommended stages summarized and presented in tabular form. Stated from the perspective of that which the trainee is expected to accomplish,

1. To utilize the best information available as a basis for a personal decision to become or not to become a teacher.

2. To begin to gratify needs of safety and belongingness in the instructional role so as to develop readiness for skill training.

3. To gratify esteem needs through the development of technical expertise, the acquisition of instructionsl skills.

4. To test instructional skills against the dynamics of classroom teaching, to revise those skills, and to integrate them into a personal teaching style.

5. To develop decision-making skills.

6. To meet the requirements of the teacher training institution for purposes of certification.

The relationships between the various phases, activities within those phases as discussed above, and the objectives given, can be charted as shown in Figure 1.

Phases:	Exploratory		Skill-Acquisition		Skill Testing and Revision
	Unstructured observation	Early direct, extensive participative clinical experience	Structured observation	Indirect clinical experience to provide skills (microteaching, simulation)	Terminal direct, extensive, participative clinical experience
1. Decision on teaching career	P	P	S	S	I
2. Gratification of safety needs in instructional role	I	P	I	P	S
3. Gratification of belongingness needs in instructional role	S	P	I	I	S
4. Gratification of esteem needs through skill acquisition	I	I	P	P	S
5. Testing (by trainee) of instructional skills and revision into personal teaching style.			I	S	P
6. Development of decision-making skills	S	P	I	P	P
7. Testing of trainee by institution for purposes of certification			S	S	P

P - Primary Objective
S - Secondary Objective
I - Incidental Learning

Figure 1

Major Objectives to be Realized from Clinical Experience in Teacher Education

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